

# Enhancing electrocatalytic hydrogen evolution of MoS<sub>2</sub> enabled by electrochemical cation implantation for simultaneous surface-defect and phase engineering

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## ABSTRACT

The increasing demand for energy-efficient and cost-effective water-splitting systems has prompted research on non-precious-metal-based electrocatalysts for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) over a wide pH range. Molybdenum sulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) has received considerable attention owing to its excellent HER activity in acidic media. However, its competitive HER properties must be improved to achieve better performance in alkaline or neutral environments. In this study, we introduced an electrochemical cation implantation (ECI) process as a versatile method to enhance the electrocatalytic properties of MoS<sub>2</sub>. By modifying the microstructure of MoS<sub>2</sub>, the ECI process induced vacancies in Mo and S, primarily in the basal planes and facilitated a gradual transition from the semiconducting (2H) to metallic (1T) phase. The optimized ECI-processed MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts exhibited improved HER activities and low overpotentials ( $\eta_{10}$ , 144 mV) over the entire pH range compared with bare MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts, highlighting the potential application of the ECI process for enhanced electrocatalysts.

## 1. Introduction

The combustion of fossil fuels has resulted in a continuous increase in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, causing environmental problems [1,2]. Although various technologies such as CO<sub>2</sub> capture and sequestration [3,4] and electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> transformation have been proposed to address these issues [5], the dependence on fossil fuels continues to increase [6,7]. Therefore, H<sub>2</sub> has gained significant attention as an alternative energy carrier because its high gravimetric energy density (approximately 120 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>) outperforms its current carbon-based counterparts (45–55 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>) [8]. In this regard, water (H<sub>2</sub>O) electrolysis [9,10] coupled with renewable energy resources is considered a viable solution because it can produce H<sub>2</sub> via electrochemical reactions on the cathode. The cathodic reaction, also referred to as the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), is facilitated by Pt-based precious metal groups; however, their limited availability hinders the widespread propagation of water electrolysis in practical applications. Therefore, it is desirable to develop cost-effective catalysts and enhance the electrocatalytic performance of

conventional catalysts using simple and controllable processes.

Various alternative catalysts, such as N-/S-/B-doped carbonaceous catalysts, transition metal-based carbide/nitride/phosphide/sulfide catalysts, and Pt-modified catalysts, have been extensively studied as potential replacements for Pt-based catalysts [11–13]. Among these, molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>), one of the most widely studied two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides, has been considered a promising alternative owing to its prolific properties, including earth-abundance, tunable band gap, high electrical conductivity, and electron mobility, that fulfill the requirements for replacing Pt-based catalysts [14–16]. However, satisfactory HER activity has not been achieved with bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts because of the large proportion of catalytically inert basal planes that originate from their crystallographic features. Previous studies have demonstrated intrinsic and extrinsic improvements in electrocatalytic activity primarily by (1) phase engineering [17–20] to adjust the electrical conductivity (semiconducting 2H phase vs. metallic 1T phase); (2) aliovalent element doping [21–26] to modify the catalytic active sites; and (3) post-chemical treatments

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such as plasma treatment [27,28] and chemical etching [29,30] to introduce vacancies (mainly, S vacancies) and cracks as an additional active sites, respectively. However, despite previous studies demonstrating improved performance only under specific pH conditions, it is essential to further investigate these outcomes over a wide pH range for industrial applications [31,32]. This is attributed to the fact that high HER activities in electrolytes under different pH conditions require entirely different approaches for the development of catalyst materials and their corresponding properties. Furthermore, previously adopted synthetic processes [17–30,33–38] are relatively complex, which make it difficult to control the defect amounts and the crystal structure of the treated catalysts. Consequently, it is challenging to determine whether these methods improve the activities intrinsically or extrinsically [39]. To address this issue, it is essential to develop approaches that can populate the inherent active sites in  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts with catalytically favorable phases.

In this study, we demonstrated a simple, facile, and precisely controllable electrochemical cation implantation (ECI) process that enhanced the catalytic activity of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalyst for the HER process by engineering its phase ( $2\text{H} \rightarrow 1\text{T}$ ) and making its basal planes rich in Mo- and S-vacancies ( $V_{\text{Mo}}$  and  $V_{\text{S}}$ ) [40]. The combined analyses of X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), Raman spectroscopy, and in situ and ex situ X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) spectroscopy, and density functional theory calculations systematically characterized the progress of phase transition and vacancy formation during the ECI process, elucidating their roles in facilitating the HER. The optimally tuned  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts grown on carbon cloth exhibited significantly enhanced HER performance under universal pH conditions compared with the bulk  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts, as evidenced by the low overpotential at a current density of  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  ( $\eta_{10}$ , 144, 184, and 212 mV for acid, base, and neutral electrolytes, respectively) and superior Tafel slopes (81, 92, and 133 mV  $\text{dec}^{-1}$  for acid, base, and neutral electrolytes, respectively).

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Materials and chemicals

All chemicals were obtained from commercial sources and used as received, unless otherwise stated. Ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate  $[(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24} \bullet 4 \text{ H}_2\text{O}]$  and thiourea ( $\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{S}$ ) were purchased from Alfa Asar. Carbon cloth was purchased from the Fuel Cell Store.  $\text{MoS}_2$  (nanopowder, 90 nm diameter, 99% trace metals basis), poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF, average  $M_w$  of approximately 534000 by gel permeation chromatography, powder form), N-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (NMP, 99%), acetic acid (glacial,  $\geq 99\%$ ), sulfuric acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , 95.0–98.0%) and nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ , 70%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Lithium hexafluorophosphate ( $\text{LiPF}_6$ ) in ethyl carbonate/diethyl carbonate (EC/DEC = 1:1, v/v) and sodium hexafluorophosphate ( $\text{NaPF}_6$ ) in EC/DEC (1:1, v/v) were purchased from Wellcos Corp. Deionized (DI) water and acetone were purchased from Daejung.

### 2.2. Synthesis of 2H $\text{MoS}_2$ catalysts on carbon cloth

Carbon cloths ( $1 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$ ) were sequentially and thoroughly washed with acetone, ethanol, and DI water via sonication for 20 min to remove organics and impurities. Subsequently, the washed carbon cloth was immersed in a mixture of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  solutions (volume ratio of 1:3) overnight.

Ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate (0.206 g) and thiourea (0.3806 g) were dissolved in DI water (30 mL) under vigorous stirring to form a homogeneous solution. The solution was then transferred to a 50-mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave, followed by the addition of the aforementioned carbon cloth. The autoclave reactor was maintained at 220 °C for 18 h, and then cooled to room temperature. The product was thoroughly washed with DI water and ethanol and dried at 60 °C under

vacuum for further electrochemical characterization as the working electrode.

### 2.3. ECI process on 2H $\text{MoS}_2$

An ECI process was conducted on 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts grown on a carbon cloth, which was used as the working electrode, to engineer phase transition and vacancy formation. The working electrode was assembled into a 2032-type coin cell in which Li foil and a porous polypropylene membrane (Celgard 2400) served as the counter/reference electrode and separator, respectively. A cosolvent of EC/DEC containing  $\text{LiPF}_6$  (1.0 M) was used as the electrolyte.

The assembled coin cell was discharged to selected voltages (1.0, 0.7, 0.2, and 0.0 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$ ) at a current density of  $-100 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$  for a controlled ECI process. Upon completion of the discharging process, the coin cell was disassembled to retrieve the working electrodes, followed by sequential and thorough washing with acetone, DI water, and a 1.0 mM acetic acid solution several times. The washed  $\text{MoS}_2$  electrode was collected and dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C for 6 h.

To test the universality of our ECI process, we also applied it to tungsten disulfide ( $\text{WS}_2$ ). All procedures were identical, except that the working electrode was prepared using a slurry containing commercial  $\text{WS}_2$  powder and a polymer binder (polyvinylidene difluoride). Additionally, a similar ECI process was conducted using sodium (Na) ions as the cation carrier. All procedures remained the same as described above, except that Na metal was used as the counter/reference electrode and a cosolvent of EC/DEC containing  $\text{NaPF}_6$  (1.0 M) was used as the electrolyte.

### 2.4. Materials characterization

The crystal structures of the prepared samples were characterized using XRD (MiniFlex 600, Rigaku). The chemical states were investigated using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS; K-alpha<sup>+</sup>, Thermo Scientific). The working electrode was weighed by using a microbalance (XPR26CV, readability = 1  $\mu\text{g}$ , Mettler Toledo). Raman spectra were recorded using Raman spectroscopy (XperRam S, Nanobase) equipped with a 532-nm excitation laser at 25 °C. The morphological and structural changes were observed using field-emission scanning electron microscopy (SUPRA55VP, Carl Zeiss) and field-emission transmission electron microscopy (JEM-2100 F, JEOL). Electron spin resonance (ESR, JES-X320, JEOL) spectroscopy was conducted at 25 °C to evaluate the concentration of vacancies by unpaired electrons. Elemental analysis of Mo and S were performed by inductively coupled plasma optical spectroscopy (ICP-OES, Agilent 5100, Agilent).

### 2.5. Evaluation of electrocatalytic HER performance

The electrocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production was performed using a potentiostat (VMP3, Biologic) in a three-electrode configuration. A reversible hydrogen electrode (HydroFlex, ET-070, EDAQ) and graphite rod served as the reference and counter electrodes, respectively. HER tests were performed in 0.5 M sulfuric acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ), 1.0 M potassium hydroxide (KOH), and 1.0 M phosphate buffer solution (PBS) by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) at a scan rate of  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . Stability tests were conducted under cyclic voltammetry (CV) mode at a scan rate of  $50 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  for 1000 cycles from 0–0.3 V vs. RHE (here and afterward,  $V_{\text{RHE}}$ ). To obtain the solution resistance in the Nyquist plot, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy analysis was performed at a potential of  $-0.2 \text{ V}_{\text{RHE}}$  in the frequency range of 0.1 Hz to 1 MHz with an AC amplitude of 5 mV. The electrode potential was controlled using an iR compensation (85%). The electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) was calculated using the electrochemical double-layer capacitance ( $C_{\text{dl}}$ ) method. The CV technique was conducted in the non-Faradaic potential window of 0.4–0.5  $\text{V}_{\text{RHE}}$  with increasing scan rates. ECSA was evaluated by dividing the specific capacitance ( $C_s = 0.040 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  for  $\text{MoS}_2$ ) [41],

42]. Long-term stability tests were performed by chronopotentiometry (CP) at a current density of  $-10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  for 100 h.

## 2.6. XAFS analyses

XAFS analyses were performed to identify the local physicochemical structural evolution of Mo in  $\text{MoS}_2$  with different degrees of lithiation at the 10 C beamline (Wide XAFS) of the Pohang Light Source-II (PLS-II) at the Pohang Accelerator Laboratory (PAL), Republic of Korea. The storage ring was operated in the top-up mode at an energy of 3.0 GeV and operating current of 300 mA. The XAFS spectra at the Mo K-edge (20 keV) were obtained in the transmission mode. Each spectrum was calibrated using the edge energy ( $E_0$ ) of the Mo foil, which was recorded simultaneously. The ATHENA and ARTEMIS software included in the IFFEFIT package were used to analyze the X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) profiles. The detailed procedure reported by Ravel et al. was followed during data processing [43]. The EXAFS spectrum ( $\chi(k)$ ) was weighted with the  $k^3$  value to intensify the signal in the high  $k$ -regime. A Hanning window function was used for the Fourier transform. All EXAFS fittings were performed in R-space; the data are summarized in Figures S1, S13, and S14 and Tables S2–S8, S13, and S14.

A lab-made acrylic kit was used for the in situ XAFS analyses [44]. The areal loading of the pristine 2H and ECI-processed  $\text{MoS}_2$  electrodes was controlled at approximately  $1.0 \text{ mg}_{\text{MoS}_2} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  to achieve sufficient XAFS signal. The other conditions were the same as those used for electrochemical measurements. Transmission and fluorescence signals were detected. Each target potential was maintained using chronoamperometry for 15 min to reach the equilibrium potential of the working electrode before the XAFS measurements and for an additional 25 min during the XAFS measurement.

## 2.7. Computational methods

The spin-polarized density functional theory (DFT) [45] calculations were performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [46,47] code. The exchange and correlation effects were accounted for using Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) [48] functionals within the generalized gradient approximation. The projected augmented plane wave (PAW) [49] method was used to describe the electron-ion interaction. We used the DFT-D3 method proposed by Grimme et al. [50] to correct Van der Waal's interaction. A kinetic energy cutoff of 450 eV was used for all the calculations.

Previous experimental and DFT results have reported five different structures of  $\text{MoS}_2$ , namely, 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$ , 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$ , 1T<sup>~</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2$ , 1T<sup>~</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2$ , and 1T<sup>~</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2$  [51–53]. Similar to the previous DFT approach [52,54], a monolayer slab of  $5 \times 5 \times 1$  and  $2 \times 2 \times 1$  were used to represent the surfaces of 2H/1T and 1T<sup>~</sup>/1T<sup>~</sup>/1T<sup>~</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2$ , respectively. Even though the supercell meshes ( $5 \times 5 \times 1$  vs.  $2 \times 2 \times 1$ ) of the surface slab are different, we maintained a S-vacancy concentration of  $\sim 3\%$  on all surface slabs. The artificial interactions between the slab and its periodic images were minimized by adding a vacuum of  $18 \text{ \AA}$  perpendicular to the slab. A Monkhorst [55] k-points mesh of  $2 \times 2 \times 1$  and  $4 \times 4 \times 1$  was used for the slab of  $5 \times 5 \times 1$  and  $2 \times 2 \times 1$ , respectively. Optimized geometry was obtained when the Hellmann-Feynman force on each ion was smaller than  $0.02 \text{ eV \AA}^{-1}$ .

Hydrogen binding energy (BE) was calculated as

$$\text{BE(hydrogen)} = E(\text{slab+hydrogen}) - E(\text{slab}) - E(\text{hydrogen}),$$

where  $E(\text{slab+hydrogen})$ ,  $E(\text{slab})$ , and  $E(\text{hydrogen})$  are the total energies of the slab with hydrogen, pristine slab, and hydrogen in the gas phase, respectively.

Using the computational hydrogen electrode model [56] developed by Nørskov and coworkers, the change in Gibbs free energy is calculated as:

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta ZPE - T\Delta S,$$

where  $\Delta E$  is the change in energy of a reaction step that can be obtained from DFT calculations,  $\Delta ZPE$  and  $T\Delta S$  are the zero-point and entropy contribution to free energy, respectively, and  $T$  is 298.15 K. The energy barriers for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dissociation were calculated using the climbing image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method [57].

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Phase and defects engineering on $\text{MoS}_2$ via the ECI process

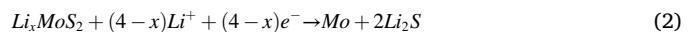
Phase- and defect-engineered  $\text{MoS}_2$  electrocatalysts were successfully synthesized using ECI. Pristine 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  was fabricated as the electrode for a 2032-type coin cell. Thereafter, the ECI process was performed by discharging the pristine 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts to the designated voltages using a high-resolution potentiostat (see the detailed voltage conditions in the Experimental Section 2.3).

Fig. 1a illustrates the stepwise ECI process and the corresponding phase and defect engineering of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts. It is well established that Li ions can reduce electrode materials, such that desirable physicochemical properties can be achieved by applying an appropriate electrochemical potential [58,59]. First, we monitored the phase transition of 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  (semiconducting) to 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  (metallic), followed by the formation of vacancies using high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) analyses. Li ions were intercalated into the interlayer galleries of 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  (denoted as pristine 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$ ), yielding 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  at approximately 1.1 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$  (Eq. (1)) [60,61].



The fast Fourier transform (FFT) patterns viewed along the [001] direction exhibiting six-fold symmetry, gradually lost their original contrast, suggesting the formation of vacancies in 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$ . Upon entry into this voltage range, pristine 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  partially transformed into 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  to form a mixed phase (denoted as p-2H/1T  $\text{MoS}_2$ ), which may have resulted from the presence of a two-phase region of pristine 2H  $\text{MoS}_2$  and lithiated  $\text{MoS}_2$  domains. The deeper ECI process, in turn, yielded vacancy-rich 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  (denoted as vr-1T  $\text{MoS}_2$ ) because the lattice fringes became less distinguishable, while vr-1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  maintained its original six-fold symmetry in the FFT pattern (Fig. 1b). The plate-like particle morphology in the high-resolution SEM (HRSEM) image suggests the formation of vacancy on the vr-1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface (Fig. 1c).

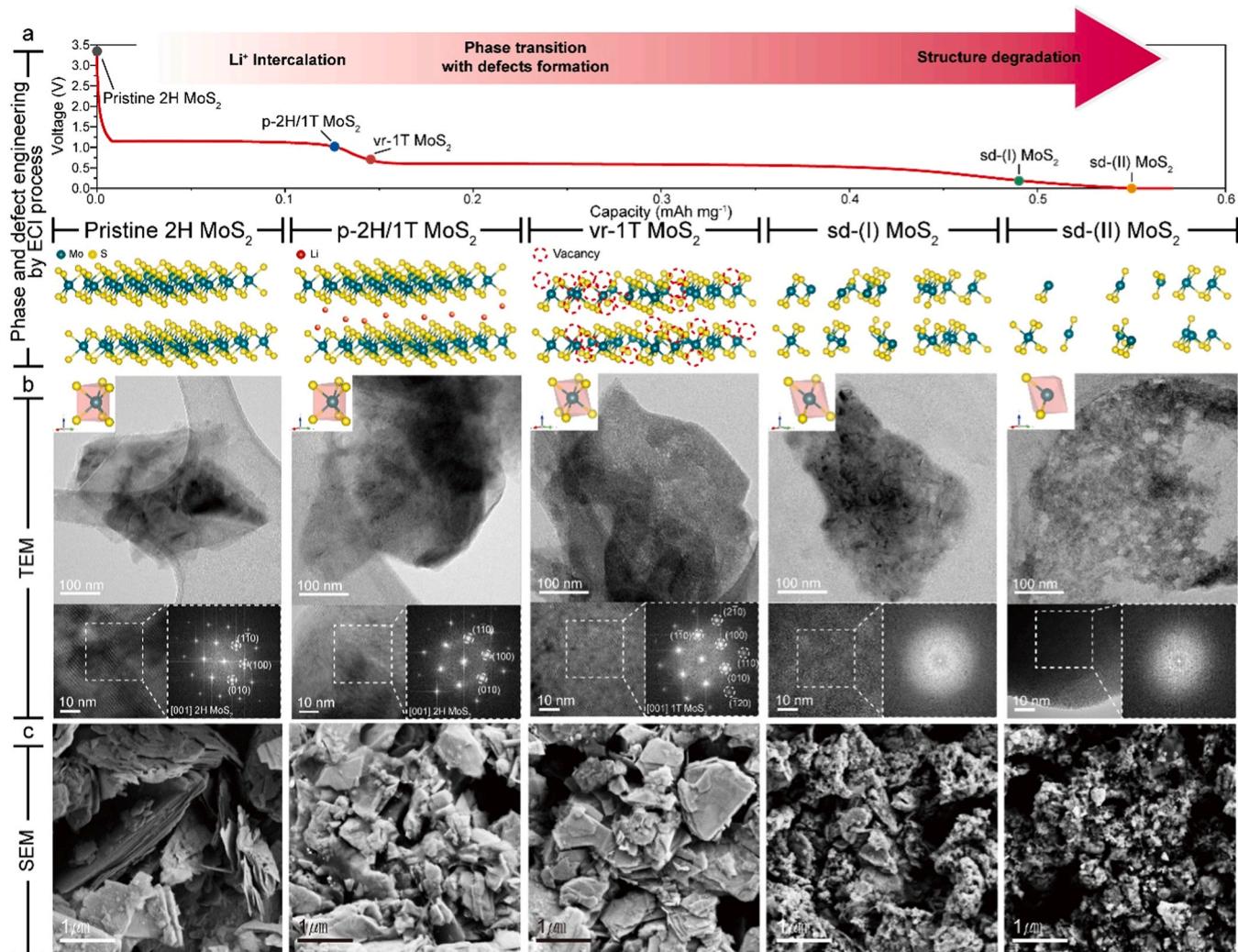
Subsequently, we confirmed that further ECI process led to the phase degradation of 1T  $\text{MoS}_2$  into sub-nanoscale Mo around 0.6 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$  (Eq. (2)) [60,61].



At the beginning of this reaction, the ECI process disturbed the local coordination environment of Mo and S in the  $\text{MoS}_2$  structure, propagating the aforementioned vacancies to form voids. Therefore, the original 2H and 1T structural features of  $\text{MoS}_2$  were destroyed (denoted as sd-(I)  $\text{MoS}_2$ ). The application of further ECI up to 0 V vs.  $\text{Li}/\text{Li}^+$  resulted in a phase transition in which the original layered morphology was completely lost and replaced by multiple pores (denoted as sd-(II)  $\text{MoS}_2$ ). Furthermore, the FFT patterns did not exhibit sharp diffraction points, suggesting the presence of sub-nanoscale amorphous Mo particles (Fig. 1b). The pulverized particles in both sd-(I)  $\text{MoS}_2$  and sd-(II)  $\text{MoS}_2$  in the HRSEM images further support phase degradation originating from the deep ECI process (Fig. 1c).

### 3.2. Structural characterization of the ECI-processed $\text{MoS}_2$

The structural evolution of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  catalysts during the ECI process was further characterized. XRD patterns of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  samples were recorded at different ECI stages (Fig. 2a). Two broad diffraction peaks



**Fig. 1.** (a) Phase transition and surface defect formation of the MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts by the ECI process and schematic of their structural evolution. (b) HRTEM images with selected area FFT, and (c) SEM images of pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>, p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub>, and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub>.

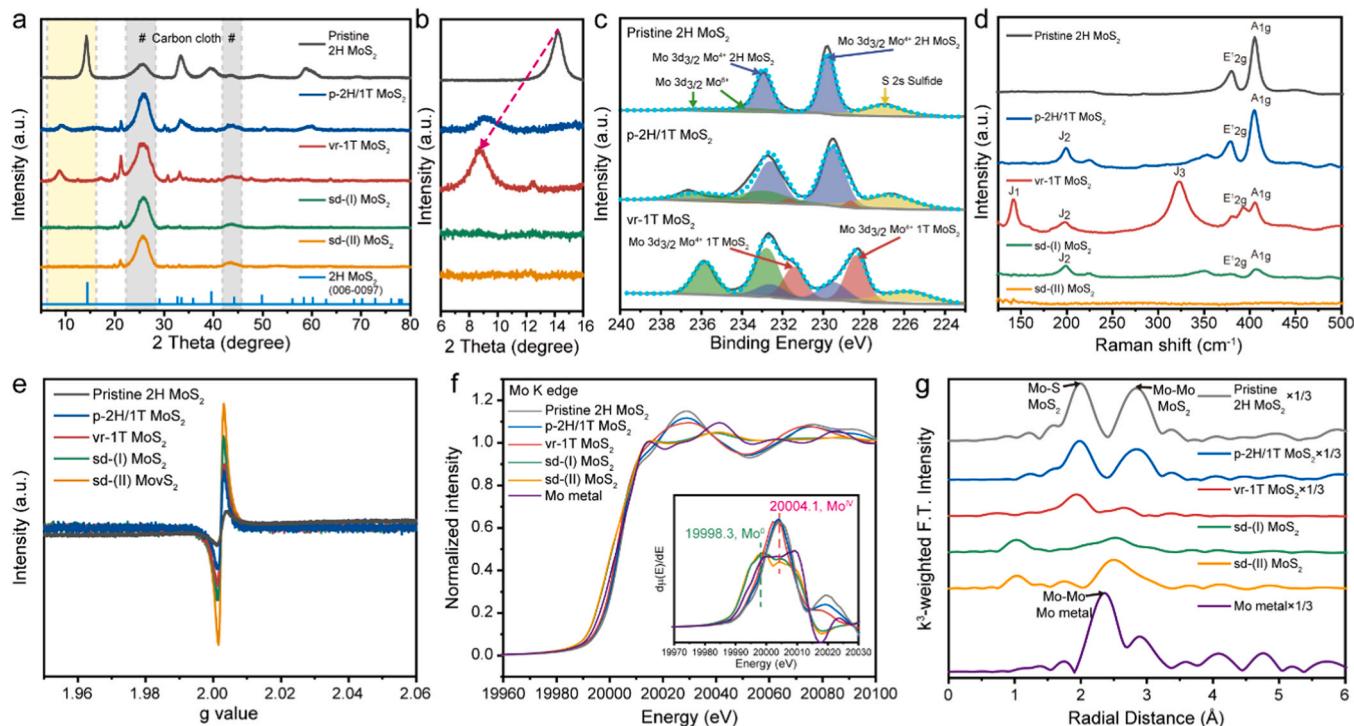
were observed at 2θ values of 25.7° and 43.5°, originating from the carbon cloth substrate in all the prepared samples [62,63]. The as-prepared 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibited a sharp XRD peak at the 2θ value of 14.4°, corresponding to the characteristic (002) peak of the 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> phase (JCPDS reference code 006–0097).

The progressive ECI process modified the layered features of the MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst. The magnified XRD patterns in the 2θ range of 6°–16° (Fig. 2b) showed that the (002) peak shifted toward lower 2θ values (14.4° (pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>) → 9.2° (p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub>) → 8.9° (vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>)) [63–66], which resulted from the gradual intercalation of Li ions into the interlayer galleries and the resultant expansion of the (002) interlayer spacing along the c-axis. The significant shift in the (002) peak with its appreciable broadening indicated the phase transition of MoS<sub>2</sub> from the 2H to 1T phases [67–69] with the formation of surface vacancies. In contrast, sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> displayed no distinguishable XRD patterns, indicating that the features of the original layered MoS<sub>2</sub> phase were completely lost, which aligned with the HRTEM results (Fig. 1b).

XPS analysis was performed to characterize the change in the electronic state of MoS<sub>2</sub> during the progressive ECI process (Fig. 2c). The doublet corresponding to the Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> at 229.8 and 232.9 eV for the pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> diminished gradually with the progress of ECI, whereas the new doublet for the 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> was observed at 228.4 and 231.4 eV, indicating successful transformation of the semiconducting 2H phase to the metallic 1T phase [17,29,70–72]. The

increasing peaks at 232.8 and 235.8 eV resulted from V<sub>Mo</sub> formation on 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces [36,73,74]. This result also indicates that Li-ion implantation into the [MoS<sub>6</sub>] slab may affect the Mo–S bonding properties and thus help stabilize the otherwise unstable 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> framework [75], which aligns with the XANES results, and will be discussed in further studies. Furthermore, the Raman spectra clearly demonstrated the evolution of the electronic structure of 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>, as demonstrated by our suggested ECI process (Fig. 2d). During the ECI process, the characteristic phonon modes of the 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> phase at 379 and 405 cm<sup>-1</sup> (E<sub>2g</sub> and A<sub>1g</sub>) [65,66,71,76] were gradually suppressed, whereas those of the 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> phase in p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> and vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> appeared at 142, 199, and 323 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponding to the J<sub>1</sub>, J<sub>2</sub>, and J<sub>3</sub> modes, respectively [65,66,71,76]. Moreover, both the 2H phase (E<sub>2g</sub> and A<sub>1g</sub>) and 1T phases (J<sub>1</sub>, J<sub>2</sub>, and J<sub>3</sub>) gradually diminished in sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> after further ECI, suggesting that the original layered MoS<sub>2</sub> structure was completely destroyed.

ESR analyses were conducted to investigate the density of lone-pair electrons in the samples. As the ECI process proceeded, a pair of opposite peaks with an S-shaped signal at approximately 3500 G (g = 2.003) became pronounced, which was associated with the formation of S vacancies and the resultant unsaturated coordination of Mo [17,29]. The increase in the intensity of the ESR peak with the progression of the ECI process indicated that the concentration of S vacancies increased during the ECI process (Fig. 2e) [77,78], which is also consistent with ICP-OES



**Fig. 2.** Characterization of phase and surface defect evolution. (a) XRD patterns, (b) magnified XRD patterns at (002) region, (c) XPS spectra, (d) Raman spectra, (e) ESR spectra, (f) ex situ XANES spectra, and (g) EXAFS profiles of pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>, p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub>.

results (Table S1). The gradual reduction in the S content in the catalysts supports the gradual formation of the S vacancies in the MoS<sub>2</sub> framework as the ECI process proceeded.

Because the ECI process readily tuned the electronic structure of Mo, we focused on XANES analysis at the Mo K-edge for a series of MoS<sub>2</sub> samples (Fig. 2f). The edge energies of the samples were evaluated using the first derivative of the corresponding XANES spectra (inset of Fig. 2f). The XANES profiles exhibited slight shifts, which gradually broadened as the ECI process progressed from pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> to p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> to vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>. This result was attributed to the loss of long-range order owing to the formation of S vacancies, which was also supported by the weakening intensities of the XRD peaks beyond the 2θ values of 30°. However, as the ECI process proceeded further, an appreciable shift was induced toward lower energies in the XANES profiles upon reduction of the 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> phase to the metallic Mo phase. The weak oscillation of the XANES spectra for sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> compared with that of the Mo foil implied the presence of a nanoscale metallic Mo domain in the corresponding samples.

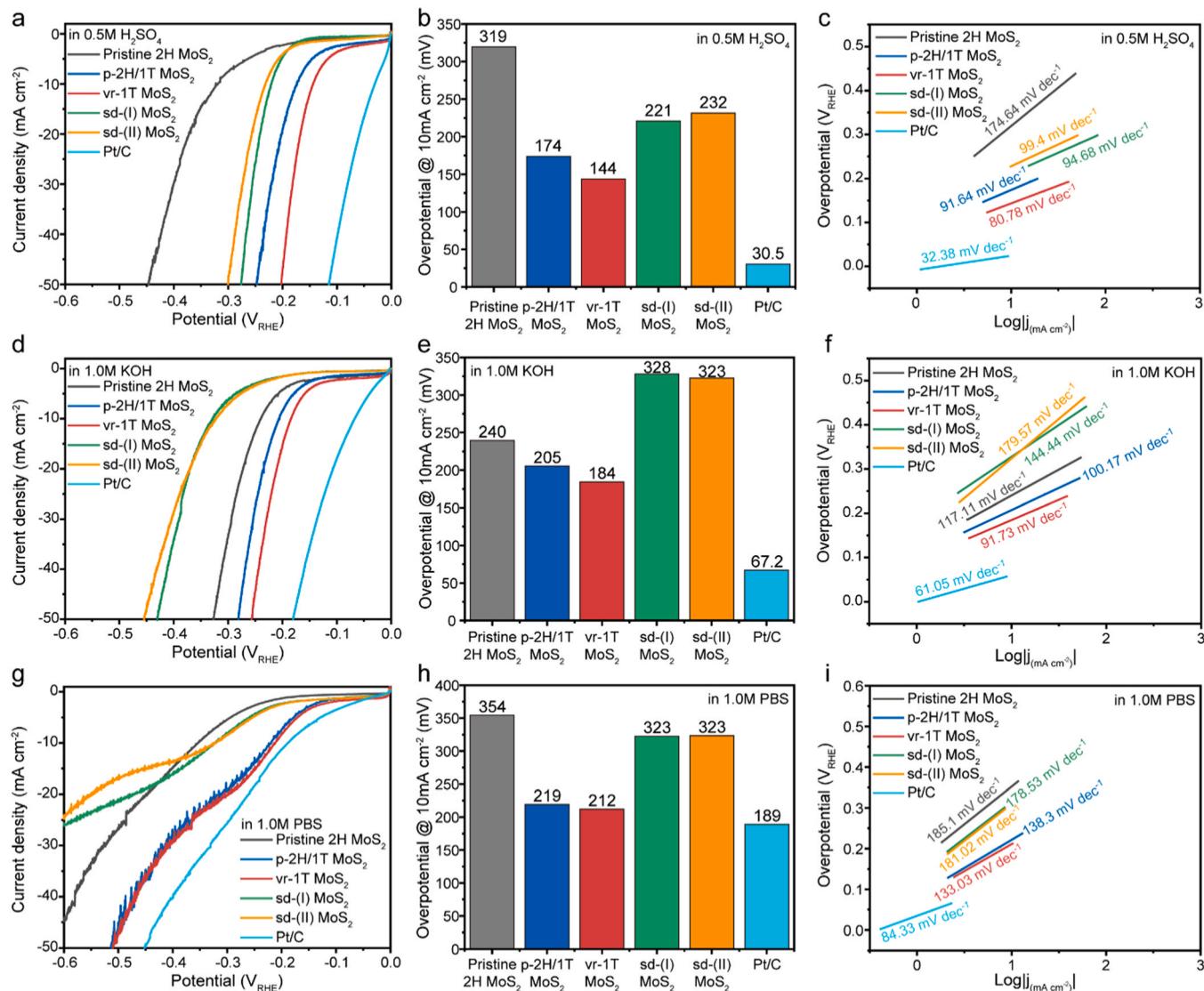
The EXAFS results were used to quantitatively investigate the interatomic bonding between Mo and neighboring Mo/S during the ECI process (Fig. 2g). The pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> showed EXAFS peaks corresponding to the Mo–S and Mo–Mo paths at 2.0 and 2.9 Å, respectively. As the ECI process proceeded to p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> and vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, the EXAFS peaks corresponding to Mo–S and Mo–Mo decreased substantially, which was attributed to the formation of S vacancies [18,79]. The EXAFS fitting results (Figure S1) further confirmed that vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibited a significantly lower coordination number for the Mo–S path ( $4.9 \pm 0.6$ ) than that of pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $5.5 \pm 0.3$ ). The increase in the degree of disorder ( $\sigma^2$ ) also supported the presence of S vacancies ( $0.0019 \pm 0.0006 \rightarrow 0.008 \pm 0.002$ ) in the MoS<sub>2</sub> framework. With more ECI processes, an additional small peak corresponding to the Mo–Mo path of the metallic Mo phase appeared at 2.4 Å for sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that the basal plane surfaces with excess vacancies would be unstable, and thus the original MoS<sub>2</sub> framework was destroyed to transform into nanoscale metallic Mo [60]. The coordination numbers of the metallic Mo–Mo path for sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $5.3 \pm 0.9$ ) and

sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $9.9 \pm 1.45$ ) were significantly smaller than those of the reference Mo foil (14), indicating that the Mo nanodomains were formed by destroying the original MoS<sub>2</sub> framework (Eq. 2) at the deep ECI level [60,80]. The detailed fitting results are summarized in Tables S2–S8.

In order to verify the versatility of our ECI process to other transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD), we applied it to WS<sub>2</sub>. As the degree of the ECI process increased (Figure S2), the sharp XRD peak at 14.3° corresponding to the (002) peak of the 2H WS<sub>2</sub> phase shifted to 14.1° (ECI(I)-WS<sub>2</sub>) and 14.0° (ECI(II)-WS<sub>2</sub>), indicating a successful phase transition from the 2H phase to the 1T phase. Moreover, the W 4f XPS doublet shifted toward lower binding energies (35.4/33.3 eV → 34.7/32.6 eV → 34.6/32.5 eV), which also demonstrated the same phase transition behavior [81–83]. Therefore, our ECI process can be readily applicable to other TMD catalysts.

### 3.3. HER performance evaluation of a series of MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts over wide pH range

The obtained samples were evaluated as HER electrocatalysts in a three-electrode configuration, in which a graphite rod and hydrogen electrode served as the counter and reference electrodes, respectively. Further details are provided in the Experimental Section 2.5. To investigate the effects of phase transition and surface vacancies induced by the ECI process on the electrocatalytic performance of the MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts, we evaluated their HER activities under acidic, alkaline, and pH-neutral conditions (Fig. 3). Fig. 3a–c show the polarization curves of the catalysts measured using linear scanning voltammetry at a scan rate of 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup> in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolytes, along with commercial carbon-supported 20 wt% Pt catalysts (Pt/C). A volcano-like dependence of HER performance is observed for the degree of ECI. As shown in Fig. 3b, the overpotential required to achieve an HER current of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (denoted as  $\eta_{10}$ ) decreases from pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (319 mV) to p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (174 mV) to vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (144 mV), and then increases from vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> to sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> (221 mV) to sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> (232 mV). In addition, the mass activities of catalysts (Figures S3a and S3b) were also calculated by using the mass loading of catalysts (Table S11). The  $\eta_{10}$  calculated from



**Fig. 3.** Electrochemical HER performance of a series of catalysts in different electrolytes. (a) HER polarization curves measured at a scan rate of 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup>, (b) overpotentials at the current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> ( $\eta_{10}$ ), and (c) Tafel plots of the catalysts in a 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte. HER polarization curves with same conditions in (d–f) 1 M KOH and (g–i) 1 M PBS electrolytes.

mass activity profiles decreased from pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (410 mV) to p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (207 mV) to vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (169 mV), and then increases from vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> to sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> (228 mV) to sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> (235 mV). Such volcano HER activity suggests the presence of an optimal level of ECI for tuning the structural and electronic properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts. The calculated Tafel slopes of the catalysts also exhibit a similar volcano-like trend (Fig. 3c), as observed in the  $\eta_{10}$  values. All the catalysts show Tafel slopes ranging from 80–175 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> (175, 92, 81, 95, and 99 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> for pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>, p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub>, and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub>, respectively), indicating the Volmer–Heyrovsky reaction pathway with the H adsorption reaction (Volmer step,  $^* + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow H$ ) as the rate-determining step [84,85]. Among the catalysts, the lowest Tafel slope (81 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>) and the charge transfer resistance value ( $0.97 \Omega \text{ cm}^2$ , Figure S4a) indicated that vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> was effective at facilitating the Volmer reaction owing to its defective but metallic conducting nature. This result was also supported by the highest ECSA values among all the electrolytes used in this study (Figures S5–S7; 1534, 1944.75, and 846.5 cm<sup>2</sup> in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 1.0 M KOH, and 1.0 M PBS, respectively), which were 2.4–12.7 times higher than that for the pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Table S9 lists the HER performance values of the MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts in this study in comparison with previously reported

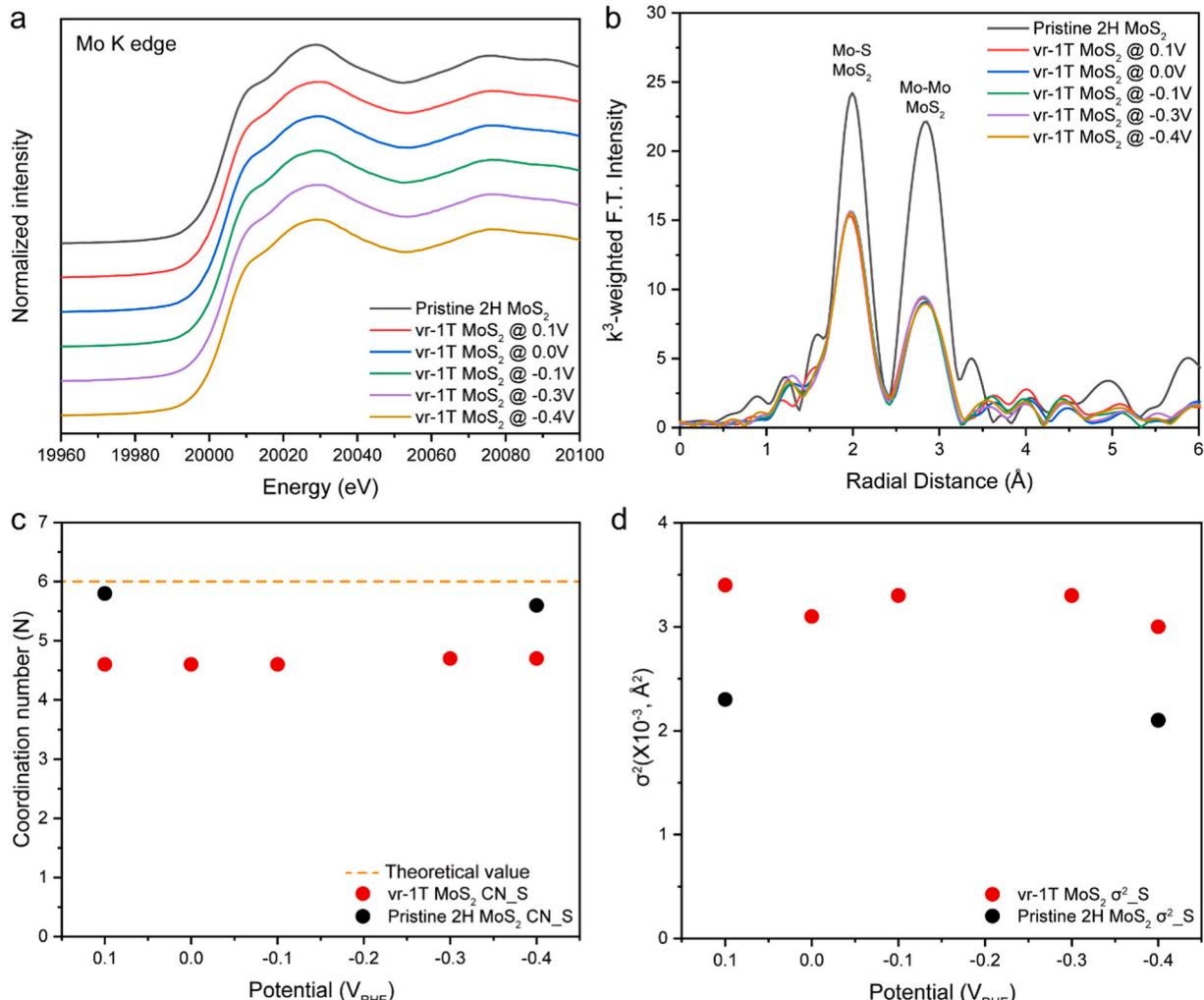
modified MoS<sub>2</sub>-based HER catalysts, highlighting the excellent HER performance of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> compared with other MoS<sub>2</sub>-based catalysts with simple phases, defects, and electronic structural modifications. Furthermore, vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> maintained its original HER activity during long-term operation. After 1000 cycles of CV cycles, a negligible change was observed in the LSV profiles (Figure S8a). Stability tests performed using CP at a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> showed a negligible activity loss in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte even after 100 h (Figure S8b). Moreover, the TEM images (Figure S9) and ICP-OES results (Table S1) of the vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> before and after long-term HER operation confirmed that the elemental composition and structural properties remained unchanged, which is also associated with the good stability of MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces within the potentials for HER in acid media [86].

The vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst maintained its superior HER performance in 1.0 M KOH (Figs. 3d–3f) and 1 M PBS (Figs. 3g–3i) solutions. In 1.0 M KOH, volcano-like  $\eta_{10}$  profiles were observed with the  $\eta_{10}$  value of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (184 mV) lower than those of pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (240 mV), p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (205 mV), sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> (328 mV), and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> (323 mV). The same tendency was maintained even under the mass activity considerations (Figures S3c and S3d). Moreover, the calculated Tafel slope values in 1.0 M KOH showed a similar volcano-like trend in the acidic

electrolyte. The vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> achieved the lowest Tafel slope (92 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), which was attributed to the favorable Volmer step on the vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> surface, even under alkaline conditions. The lowest charge transfer resistance (2.27 Ω cm<sup>-2</sup>) of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> also supported the facile Volmer step in the HER process (Figure S4b). Both the sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts exhibited relatively larger η<sub>10</sub> values, which might be attributed to the strong H binding on the Mo surfaces formed by the deep ECI process [87]. Although in 1.0 M PBS, the overall trends in η<sub>10</sub> values, Tafel slopes, and catalytic life span remained similar, the HER performance deteriorated. Such deteriorated HER performance in 1.0 M PBS solution was often observed in previous studies using PBS-based electrolytes [88–93]; this was attributed to the sluggish mass transport rate over a prolonged cycle. However, the vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> showed decent η<sub>10</sub> value and Tafel slope of 212 mV and 133 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> compared with other counterparts of pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (354 mV and 185 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), p-2H/1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (219 mV and 138 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), sd-(I) MoS<sub>2</sub> (323 mV and 181 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), and sd-(II) MoS<sub>2</sub> (323 mV and 138 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>) in 1.0 M PBS electrolyte. In the mass activity consideration, similar tendency was maintained, further supporting the high electrochemical activity of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>. Unlike the robust performance in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte, when tested in 1.0 M KOH and 1.0 M PBS electrolytes, the vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibited an initial drop in their activity for the initial 10 h and a plateau for remaining duration. The main reason for the initial activity

loss can be attributed to the partial dissolution of S<sup>2-</sup> ions alkaline and neutral electrolytes. However, because the catalyst surface are readily passivated by Mo-containing hydroxide layers, the activity would not further decay [94]. The pH-universal HER performance of the optimized vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst was compared with those of other state-of-the-art modified MoS<sub>2</sub>-based catalysts (Figure S10 and Table S10). In mass-specific assessments, our optimized vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibited outstanding HER performance (i.e., mA mg<sup>-1</sup>MoS<sub>2</sub> and η<sub>10</sub>) compared to other MoS<sub>2</sub>-based catalysts (Figure S3 and Table S12). The vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst not only exhibited pH-universal HER performance through the facile modification of the catalytic active phase and simultaneous incorporation of defects over the MoS<sub>2</sub> framework, but also demonstrated outstanding HER performance over a wide pH range compared with complex heterostructures that engage in single-atom decoration and biphasic composites.

We also performed a similar ECI process using Na ions instead of Li ions (Figure S11). Two distinct cathodic peaks around 0.8 and 0.0 V versus the standard reduction potential of Na (V<sub>Na</sub>) in the CV curve indicated that Na ion implantation also led to the phase transition of the 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> phase to the 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> phase, similar in the process using Li ions (Fig. 2). The HER performance of the ECI-processed MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts by Na ions taken at different potentials (namely, Na-ECI(I)-MoS<sub>2</sub> and Na-ECI(II)-MoS<sub>2</sub> as denoted in Figure S11a) was compared. Na-ECI(I)-MoS<sub>2</sub>



**Fig. 4.** In situ XAFS analyses of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> measured at Mo K-edge in a 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte. (a) In situ XANES profiles from 0.1 V<sub>RHE</sub> (top) to -0.4 V<sub>RHE</sub> (bottom) and (b) corresponding EXAFS profiles along with those of pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> as reference spectra. (c) EXAFS-fitted coordination numbers of Mo-S (CN<sub>S</sub>) path for vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (red) and pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (black) catalysts as a function of applied potentials. (d) Debye-Waller factors of the Mo-S (σ<sup>2</sup><sub>S</sub>) path for vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (red) and pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (black) catalysts.

exhibited superior HER performance with its  $\eta_{10}$  value being 129 mV, suggesting that Na ions also can be utilized as an effective carrier ion in the ECI process.

### 3.4. In situ XAFS analyses at the Mo K-edge

We performed in situ XAFS at electrochemical potentials for HER in the range of 0.1 V<sub>RHE</sub> to -0.4 V<sub>RHE</sub> (Fig. 4) in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution to further analyze the physicochemical properties of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> during HER. For comparison, pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst was characterized using in situ XAFS measurement at 0.1 V<sub>RHE</sub> and -0.4 V<sub>RHE</sub> (Figure S12) (See the Experimental Section 2.6 for further details). No significant change was observed in the XANES profiles of the vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> and pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> catalysts over the entire potential range (Fig. 4a), indicating that neither catalyst underwent structural degradation during the HER process. The negligible changes in the Mo-S and Mo-Mo peaks in the EXAFS profiles of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> also supported the fact that the structural and electronic properties induced by the ECI process remained robust during the HER, and the surface vacancies persistently served as catalytically active sites for the HER (Fig. 4b).

EXAFS fitting was performed to further investigate the local structural environment around Mo with a focus on the coordination number (CN) and Debye-Waller factor ( $\sigma^2$ ) values of the Mo-S and Mo-Mo paths (Figures S13–S14 and Tables S13–S14). Compared with pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst, the CN values for the Mo-S (CN<sub>S</sub>) path of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst appreciably decreased ( $5.8 \pm 0.4$  for pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow 4.6 \pm 0.4$  for vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>). The decrease in the CN<sub>S</sub> value, a key indicator of S vacancies in vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub>, remained almost unchanged throughout the potential range for in situ measurements (Fig. 4c), indicating a robust structural 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> framework while maintaining S vacancies. In particular, our in situ EXAFS fitting results demonstrated the critical role of S vacancies in facilitating H adsorption (Volmer step) during the HER process. As the potential increased negatively (Fig. 4d), the  $\sigma^2$  values for the Mo-S path ( $\sigma^2_S$ ) decreased. At 0.1 V<sub>RHE</sub>, where H adsorption is thermodynamically unfavorable, vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibited a  $\sigma^2_S$  value of  $3.4 \pm 1.0$ . However, at -0.4 V<sub>RHE</sub>, the  $\sigma^2_S$  value decreased to  $3 \pm 0.1$ , which was due to the H adsorption on the catalytic active site, thereby reducing the degree of disorder for the Mo-S path. The pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibited a similar trend of reduction in the  $\sigma^2_S$  value ( $2.3 \pm 0.7$  at 0.1 V<sub>RHE</sub>  $\rightarrow 2.1 \pm 0.7$  at -0.4 V<sub>RHE</sub>), further supporting the involvement of a catalytic active site in the Mo-S bonding. In fact, such a decrease in Debye-Waller factor upon H adsorption has been widely observed in the Pt-based catalysts [95–97], where the strong chemisorption of H and Pt atoms limits the motion of Pt atoms [97]. Likewise, the degree of disordering for the Mo-S path could likely be reduced by H adsorption. Based on the  $\sigma^2_S$  value, the enhanced HER activity of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> was attributed to the optimal binding mode of <sup>1</sup>H intermediates on the populated catalytic active sites (S vacancies) and the enhanced charge transfer rate by the modified electronic structure (semiconducting  $\rightarrow$  metallic) enabled by the ECI process.

### 3.5. DFT calculations

DFT calculations were carried out to identify the respective effects of phase transition and vacancy defects generation in improving HER performance. Firstly, the formation energies of 2H and 1T family (*i.e.*, 1T, 1T<sup>+</sup>, 1T<sup>–</sup>, and 1T<sup>++</sup>) of MoS<sub>2</sub> structure (Figure S15) were calculated and compared. The calculated values of formation energy per atom for 2H, 1T, 1T<sup>+</sup>, 1T<sup>–</sup>, and 1T<sup>++</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> structures are found to be -0.777 eV, -0.496 eV, -0.589 eV, -0.557 eV, and -0.588 eV, respectively, indicating that 1T<sup>+</sup>, 1T<sup>–</sup>, and 1T<sup>++</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> structures are the more favorable derivative in 1T family of MoS<sub>2</sub>, consistent with the literature [51,54]. The previous experimental results also noted that the 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> structural motif are readily distorted to form its derivatives [52,75]. A comparison of our DFT obtained formation energies, lattice constants, and vacancy formation energies with previous DFT results is presented in Table S15.

Overall the results are consistent with the previous DFT reports [53,98]. In addition, the results of the DFT calculations of vacancy formation energies show that, in general, the formation of S-vacancy is thermodynamically more favorable compared to the formation of Mo vacancies (Table S15). Therefore, the below HER-related discussion is mostly limited to the MoS<sub>2</sub> structures with and without S vacancies. To this end, we constructed MoS<sub>2</sub> model surfaces to represent pristine 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (2H MoS<sub>2</sub>), vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, Sv-1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, 1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, and Sv-1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, where Sv is referred to as a S-vacancy) catalysts investigated in this work.

The binding energy of hydrogen (Table S16), a key HER intermediate in acid electrolytes, is calculated on all possible surface sites (Figure S16). The DFT calculated binding energy of hydrogen is then used to construct the HER free energy diagrams shown in Figs. 5a and S17. It was observed that the  $\Delta G(^1\text{H})$  value was significantly lowered on 1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> (0.15 eV) and 1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> (0.40 eV) than 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (1.77 eV), indicating first that the structural modification was effective in facilitating the HER process. In addition, <sup>1</sup>H adsorption became almost thermoneutral on the S-vacancies on 1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> (Sv-1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, -0.22 eV) and 1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> (Sv-1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, -0.12 eV), supporting the facile Volmer step and the resultant high HER activity of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst in the experimental results (Fig. 3a). We also found that the S vacancy on 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> (Sv-2H MoS<sub>2</sub>) can facilitate the HER process with its nearly thermoneutral binding energy of -0.05 eV (Figure S17). However, the S vacancy is unlikely on 2H MoS<sub>2</sub> because of the relatively high S vacancy formation energy (0.037 eV) compared with those on 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> (-0.051 eV) and 1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> (0.018 eV). Therefore, we could rule out the Sv-2H MoS<sub>2</sub> from further considerations because it is rarely feasible from the experimental viewpoints.

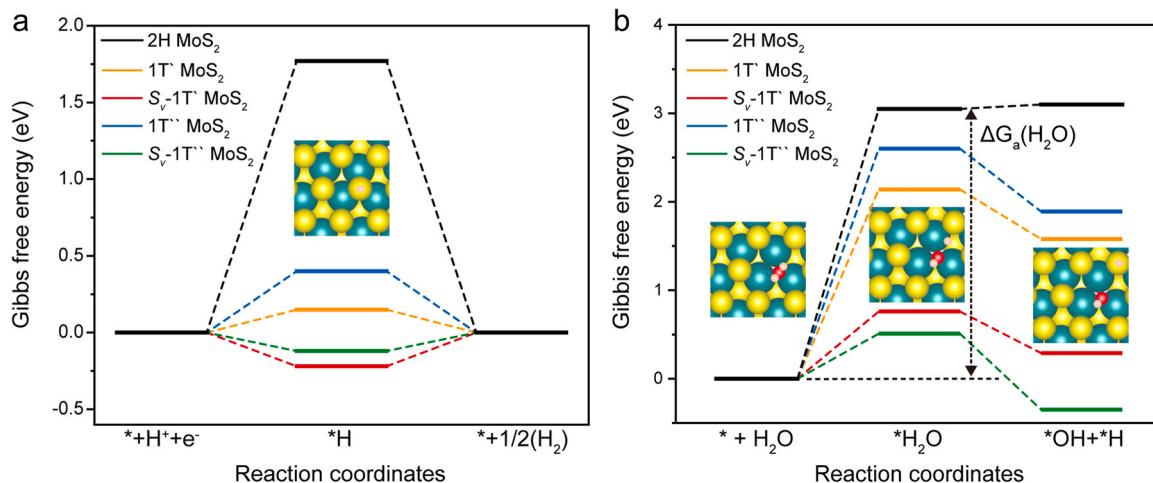
We also constructed the free energy diagrams (Fig. 5b) involving the energy barrier for water dissociation ( $\Delta G_a(\text{H}_2\text{O})$ ) because the HER process in alkaline and neutral electrolytes are mainly controlled by the water dissociation reaction on the catalyst surfaces. It is observed that the S vacancy assisted water dissociation reaction is more favorable (*e.g.*, 0.75 eV on Sv-1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub> and 0.51 eV on Sv-1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>) than the water dissociation reaction on other MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces without S vacancies (*e.g.*, 2.14 eV on 1T<sup>+</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, 2.6 eV on 1T<sup>–</sup> MoS<sub>2</sub>, and 3.05 eV on 2H MoS<sub>2</sub>), supporting again the enhanced HER activity and kinetics of vr-1T MoS<sub>2</sub> compared with those of 2H pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> (Figs. 3d and 3g).

### 4. Conclusions

We demonstrated an ECI process for improving electrocatalytic performance by tuning the structural and electronic properties of a given catalyst. Our ECI process successfully modified the MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst as a model catalyst to exhibit high HER activity, low overpotential ( $\eta_{10}$ , 144 mV), and long-term stability with negligible activity loss up to 100 h. Our combined HR-TEM, Raman, and in situ XAFS analyses revealed that the enhanced HER capability of the ECI-processed MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst was attributed to the modified electronic properties and populated catalytic active sites on the basal planes of the MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst, resulting in a more favorable Volmer step compared with the pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Specifically, progressive Li-ion implantation induced a phase transition from the semiconducting 2H phase to the metallic 1T phase concurrently with vacancy formation, which facilitated the HER process. Therefore, our study highlights the potential of the ECI process as a universal approach for converting nonactive catalytic sites into active sites.

### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Hyung Mo Jeong:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Ji Hoon Lee:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Investigation, Funding acquisition. **Bipin Lamichhane:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing –



**Fig. 5.** DFT calculated (a) HER free energy diagram in acidic electrolytes and (b) barrier for water dissociation on a series of MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces. The inset figures are top view of the 1T'' MoS<sub>2</sub> slab with corresponding reaction intermediates. Mo: turquoise, S: yellow, O: red, and H: pink.

review & editing. **Shyam Kattel:** Funding acquisition, Investigation, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Byunggon Song:** Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Mun Kyoung Kim:** Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Benzhi Wang:** Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation. **Sunhyeong Kwon:** Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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#### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.124037](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.124037).

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